

Markov ↔ Kalman Filter Localization

- **Markov localization**

- localization starting from any unknown position
- recovers from ambiguous situation.
- However, to update the probability of all positions within the whole state space at any time requires a discrete representation of the space (grid). The required memory and calculation power can thus become very important if a fine grid is used.

- **Kalman filter localization**

- tracks the robot and is inherently very precise and efficient.
- However, if the uncertainty of the robot becomes too large (e.g. collision with an object) the Kalman filter will fail and the position is definitively lost.

Markov Localization (1)

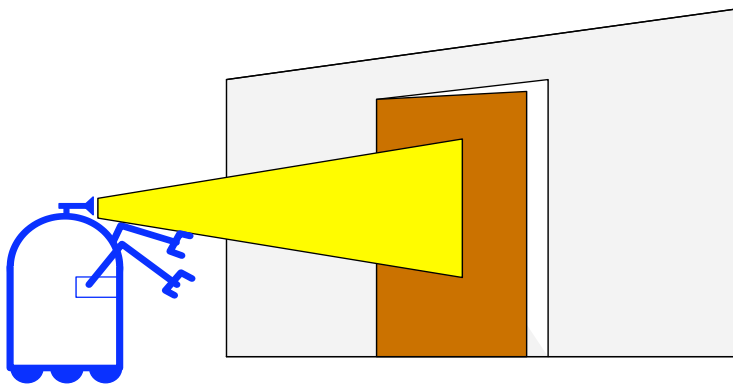
- Markov localization uses an explicit, discrete representation for the probability of all position in the state space.
- This is usually done by representing the environment by a grid or a topological graph with a finite number of possible states (positions).
- During each update, the probability for each state (element) of the entire space is updated.

Markov Localization (2): Applying probability theory to robot localization

- P(A): Probability that A is true.
 - e.g. $p(r_t = l)$: probability that the robot r is at position l at time t (prior)
- We wish to compute the probability of each individual robot position given actions and sensor measures.
- P(A|B): Conditional probability of A given that we know B.
 - e.g. $p(r_t = l | i_t)$: probability that the robot is at position l given the sensors input i_t .
- Product rule:
$$p(A \wedge B) = p(A|B)p(B)$$
$$p(A \wedge B) = p(B|A)p(A)$$
- Bayes rule:
$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(B|A)p(A)}{p(B)}$$

Bayes rule example

- Suppose a robot obtains measurement z
- What is $P(open|z)$?



4

Bayes rule Causal vs. Diagnostic Reasoning

- $P(open|z)$ is **diagnostic**.
- $P(z|open)$ is **causal**.
- Often **causal** knowledge is easier to obtain.
- Bayes rule allows us to use causal knowledge:

count frequencies!

$$P(open|z) = \frac{P(z|open)P(open)}{P(z)}$$

5

Bayes Formula again

$$P(x, y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(y|x)P(x)$$

\Rightarrow

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x) P(x)}{P(y)} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \cdot \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}}$$

Example

- Consider that we have a random discrete random variable X , with two outcomes characterizing whether the door is open or not. Our initial belief (or prior probability) is

$$bel(X = open) = 0.5 \text{ and } bel(X = closed) = 0.5$$

- Now suppose that we have some noisy sensors trying make some measurements of the door. The characteristics of the sensors obtained in the training/learning stage are following – the sensor can have two outcomes, each with the following conditional probability

$$P(z = sense_open | X = open) = 0.6$$

$$P(z = sense_closed | X = open) = 0.4$$

$$P(z = sense_open | X = closed) = 0.3$$

$$P(z = sense_closed | X = closed) = 0.7$$

- This suggests that detecting closed door is relatively reliable (only 0.3 errors), but detecting open door is less reliable

Example

- Suppose you get a measurement $z = sense_open$ now
- You want to compute probability that the door is open
- To shorten the notation :
- $P(z|open) = 0.6$ $P(z|\neg open) = 0.3$
- $P(open) = P(\neg open) = 0.5$

$$P(open | z) = \frac{P(z | open)P(open)}{P(z | open)p(open) + P(z | \neg open)p(\neg open)}$$

$$P(open | z) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.5}{0.6 \cdot 0.5 + 0.3 \cdot 0.5} = \frac{2}{3} = 0.67$$

- **z raises the probability that the door is open.**

8

Combining Evidence

- Suppose our robot obtains another observation z_2 , from other sensing modality which has slightly different conditional probabilities

- $P(z_2|open) = 0.5$ $P(z_2|\neg open) = 0.6$

- Which for example is more detail is

$$P(z_2 = \text{sense_open} | X = \text{open}) = 0.5, P(z_2 = \text{sense_open} | X = \neg \text{open}) = 0.6$$

$$P(z_2 = \text{sense_closed} | X = \text{open}) = 0.5, P(z_2 = \text{sense_closed} | X = \neg \text{open}) = 0.4$$

- Given these conditional prob. and knowing the prior, you can compute the joint distribution (of z_2 and X and convince your self that all entries sum up to 1

- How can we integrate this new information?

- More generally, how can we estimate

$$P(x | z_1 \dots z_n)?$$

9

Recursive Bayesian Updating

$$P(x | z_1, \dots, z_n) = \frac{P(z_n | x, z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}) P(x | z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}{P(z_n | z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}$$

Markov assumption: z_n is independent of z_1, \dots, z_{n-1} if we know x .

$$\begin{aligned} P(x | z_1, \dots, z_n) &= \frac{P(z_n | x) P(x | z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}{P(z_n | z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})} \\ &= \eta P(z_n | x) P(x | z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}) \\ &= \eta_{1 \dots n} \prod_{i=1 \dots n} P(z_i | x) P(x) \end{aligned}$$

10

Example: Second Measurement

- $P(z_2|open) = 0.5$ $P(z_2|\neg open) = 0.6$
- $P(open|z_1) = 2/3$

$$P(open|z_2, z_1) = \frac{P(z_2|open) P(open|z_1)}{P(z_2|open) P(open|z_1) + P(z_2|\neg open) P(\neg open|z_1)}$$
$$= \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{5}{8} = 0.625$$

- z_2 lowers the probability that the door is open.

11

Actions

- Often the world is **dynamic** since
 - *actions carried out by the robot,*
 - *actions carried out by other agents,*
 - *or just the **time** passing by*change the world.
- How can we **incorporate** such **actions**?
- How to model them explicitly ?

Typical Actions

- The robot **turns its wheels** to move
- The robot **uses its manipulator** to grasp an object
- Plants grow over **time**...

- Actions are **never carried out with absolute certainty**.
- In contrast to measurements, **actions generally increase the uncertainty**.

Modeling Actions

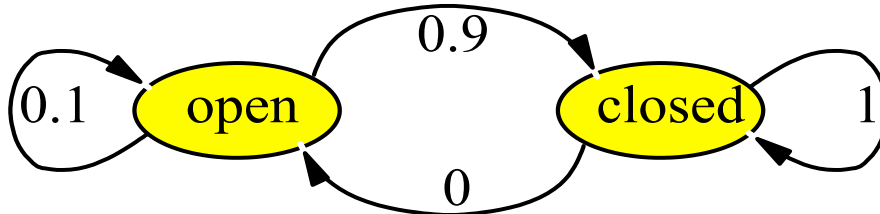
- To incorporate the outcome of an action u into the current “belief”, we use the conditional pdf

$$P(x|u,x')$$

- This term specifies the pdf that **executing u changes the state from x' to x** .

State Transitions

$P(x|u,x')$ for $u = \text{"close door"}$:



If the door is open, the action “close door” succeeds in 90% of all cases.

15

Integrating the Outcome of Actions

Continuous case:

$$P(x | u) = \int P(x | u, x')P(x')dx'$$

Discrete case:

$$P(x | u) = \sum P(x | u, x')P(x')$$

*Given and action u , what will happen to the posterior
Belief about state*

16

Example: The Resulting Belief

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{closed} | u) &= \sum P(\text{closed} | u, x')P(x') \\ &= P(\text{closed} | u, \text{open})P(\text{open}) \\ &\quad + P(\text{closed} | u, \text{closed})P(\text{closed}) \\ &= \frac{9}{10} * \frac{5}{8} + \frac{1}{1} * \frac{3}{8} = \frac{15}{16}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{open} | u) &= \sum P(\text{open} | u, x')P(x') \\ &= P(\text{open} | u, \text{open})P(\text{open}) \\ &\quad + P(\text{open} | u, \text{closed})P(\text{closed}) \\ &= \frac{1}{10} * \frac{5}{8} + \frac{0}{1} * \frac{3}{8} = \frac{1}{16} \\ &= 1 - P(\text{closed} | u)\end{aligned}$$

17

General Bayes Filters: Framework

- **Putting actions and observations together**

- **Given:**

- Stream of observations z and action data u :

$$d_t = \{u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, z_t\}$$

- *Sensor model* $P(z|x)$ (actual models discussed later)

- *Action model* $P(x|u, x')$ (actual models discussed later)

- *Prior probability of the system state* $P(x)$.

- **Wanted:**

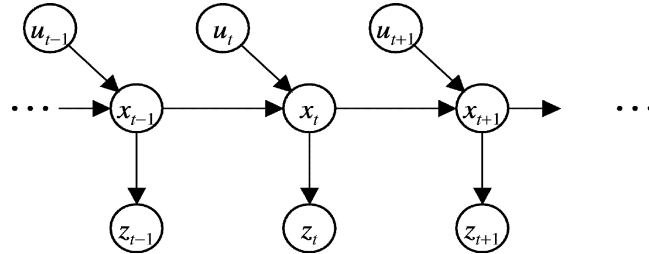
- Estimate of the state X of a *dynamical system*.

- The posterior of the state is also called **Belief**:

$$Bel(x_t) = P(x_t | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, z_t)$$

18

Markov Assumption



$$p(z_t | x_{0:t}, z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) = p(z_t | x_t)$$

$$p(x_t | x_{1:t-1}, z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) = p(x_t | x_{t-1}, u_t)$$

Underlying Assumptions

- Static world
- Independent noise
- Perfect model, no approximation errors

19

Bayes Filters

z = observation
 u = action
 x = state

$$\boxed{Bel(x_t)} = P(x_t | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, z_t)$$

Bayes $= \eta P(z_t | x_t, u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t) P(x_t | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t)$

Markov $= \eta P(z_t | x_t) P(x_t | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t)$

Total prob. $= \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, x_{t-1})$
 $P(x_{t-1} | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t) dx_{t-1}$

Markov $= \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1} | u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t) dx_{t-1}$

Markov $= \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1} | u_1, z_1, \dots, z_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$

$$\boxed{= \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) Bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}}$$

20

$$Bel(x_t) = \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) Bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

1. Algorithm **Bayes_filter**($Bel(x), d$):
2. $\eta = 0$
3. If d is a **perceptual** data item z then
4. For all x do
5. $Bel'(x) = P(z | x) Bel(x)$
6. $\eta = \eta + Bel'(x)$
7. For all x do
8. $Bel'(x) = \eta^{-1} Bel'(x)$
9. Else if d is an **action** data item u then
10. For all x do
11. $Bel'(x) = \int P(x | u, x') Bel(x') dx'$
12. Return $Bel'(x)$

21

Bayes Filters are Familiar!

$$Bel(x_t) = \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) Bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

- Kalman filters
- Particle filters
- Hidden Markov models
- Dynamic Bayesian networks
- Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes (POMDPs)

22

Summary

- Bayes rule allows us to compute probabilities that are hard to assess otherwise.
- Under the Markov assumption, recursive Bayesian updating can be used to efficiently combine evidence.
- Bayes filters are a probabilistic tool for estimating the state of dynamic systems.